

MODERN LIVING

Overseas students in this country suffer from homesickness



The Indian engineer who studied in the Federal Republic and is now a husband and father represents one of the many problems connected with training graduates from developing countries and their professional future. Much has been done to help graduates find their feet at home after studying abroad, and from the many at first disorganised efforts in this direction much information has been collected that gives a fair idea of what problems exist.

There was a time when the papers were full of dramatic reports about graduates from developing countries becoming estranged from their homelands and being reluctant to return home. This is no longer so, a more realistic approach is being taken to the problem.

Dr Abdul Wasse Laliff, a lecturer from the medical faculty of Kabul University, was the 1,000th scholarship holder to be welcomed to the Carl Duisberg Society in Saarbrücken. He was in the company of 167 others holding scholarships from this organisation that is supported by government, industry and private people. The Society's reception centre was opened in 1967 and has proved its worth.

All scholarship holders entering the country are examined here on their professional knowledge and their command

of the language. They also receive their first briefing on what to expect in the Federal Republic and the nature of the course or work for which they have been selected. Dr Laliff, along with many others who have now returned for a refresher course, studied in this country years ago.

The Carl Duisberg Society is not now so convinced, as many were in the early sixties, that students from developing countries spend far too long in Europe, even to the extent of looking for permanent posts in the countries in which they graduated. Graduates or trainees do not become an encumbrance to conditions in a foreign country that they no longer wish to return home. Difficulties of adjustment to prevailing conditions do not exist only at the beginning of a foreigner's sojourn but are often left up to the very day of departure.

In the CDS's International clubs "national evenings" are being continually held at which various national groups discuss conditions in their home countries, present folk dances or songs and provide samples of their native dishes. Activity that goes by the name of assistance is doubtless fitting for the organisers because the pattern never varies much, but such activity is very important.

What Friedrich List once said of America also applies to foreigners in the Federal Republic: "One country I became very well acquainted with in America, and that was Germany." Hans Paklepp, a CDS organiser, illustrated this with another richly amusing anecdote.

When students from Togo were invited to arrange a folk evening they approached the German leader of the group a few days before the event and said, "We know the various French deportations, we know when Joan of Arc lived and who General de Gaulle is, we also know Voltaire and Victor Hugo. But could you tell us something about the history of our own people. What can we say about the cultural traditions of our people? Have you any literature on Togo?"

More importance is attached today to the difficulties confronting home-bound graduates and trainees than those with which they must cope while abroad. Their complaints about antiquated methods, bureaucracy and corruption expose them to the danger of being ostracised as know-nothings.

Students and trainees who have completed their studies at home rarely shake off the norms and mores of their native communities. Before any reforms can be carried out, however, a clash of interests and opinions is essential, and such an intellectual climate is found primarily in progressive industrial nations.

The future elite of developing countries can learn in the industrialised world that social status is not necessarily a matter of belonging to a certain class. Personal performance is what matters. It is important therefore that psychological problems should be discussed in whatever advanced training courses are being arranged. Seminars could be held at which the difficulties facing the homecomer could be discussed in extensive detail.

One of the main tasks facing young planners in developing countries would seem to be to encourage investment, especially long-term investment. It is essential too that the purpose behind a programme should be thoroughly understood.

Hans Paklepp distinguished between three types of training programmes with such objects in view:

● Programmes with specific reference to certain projects have been given great prominence in recent years. Details of technical and commercial aid are discussed with the people who may eventually be responsible for this aid. Thanks to a more efficient organisation such programmes are now more effective since most participants know before they go abroad what posts they will be returning to.

● In this category are found annual programmes for groups of experts. These are really seminars for enterprising businessmen in the fields of engineering, production, management, export promotion, financial management and management control.

● This group includes for the most part programmes that are largely concerned with demonstration. How important and how promising it can be to depart from well-trodden paths was shown in the organisation of a course that was not advertised in the usual way in the home country but during radio programmes for Greek workers in this country.

There were 500 applicants of which twenty were chosen for the course. Those qualified by reason of their having had years of experience in the occupation in question. One of the conditions they were obliged to accept was that on successfully completing the course they would spend at least five years as instructors in very backward Greek technical schools, in schools that badly need to be expanded and modernised.

(Handelsblatt, 3 December 1988)

The German Tribune

Hamburg, 21 January 1989
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De Gaulle throws a lifeline to isolated Moscow



General de Gaulle, who had to refrain from going it alone for a while and to see the line as a result of France's domestic difficulties, has made a come-back on the international stage with two spectacular moves: the total embargo on arms for Israel and the resumption of talks with Moscow, broken off when the Soviet Union invaded Czechoslovakia.

That both moves seemed more in less simultaneously shows up not only the contradictions but also the weakness of French policies. The General clings down on Israel but France's objectives in the Middle East are reduced to verbal reservations. Like the rest of the world, General de Gaulle has submitted to the realities of the situation brought about by Moscow's use of force.

The meeting of the Franco-Soviet commission, postponed from September to January because of the Czech crisis, has been of considerable political importance for both sides. M. De Gaulle's retention of the chairmanship despite his move from the Ministry of Economic Affairs to the Foreign Ministry is in itself a form of political symbolism.

For the Soviet Union the resumption of cooperation with France represents evidence from an unsatisfactory state of relative isolation. France's re-established

nations to self-determination is acknowledged.

Yet General de Gaulle, who after his visit to Russia in 1966 set about coaxing the countries of Eastern Europe by means of a network of bilateral contacts to leave behind the Kremlin's apron strings, now has to give Moscow pride of place among contacts with the East.

The realities France must face include the precarious state of its foreign trade, which does not allow Paris to neglect Eastern Bloc markets that could well be expanded. Trade with the Soviet Union in particular last year shows that France stands a good chance in competition with the rest of the Western world.

With exports amounting at 1,300 million francs and imports at 950 million the volume of France-Soviet trade rose three times the level of 1984, when the first five-year trade agreement between the two countries was signed.

Last year, for the first time since 1983, France achieved a surplus worthy of the name in trade with the Soviet Union. This is largely due to the plentiful, after-bidder resumption of capital goods orders.

Trade with the Soviet Union still amounts to no more than two per cent of the total volume of France's imports and exports, but Moscow's booming requirements, including a cellulose factory, a natural gas liquefaction plant and a large-scale commercial vehicle assembly line, make the French feel that the Soviet market is capable of development and that in cooperation with the Soviet Union they need not fear being hard-pressed by a technologically and commercially superior opponent, as might well be the case in dealings with the United States.

Despite the difficulties placed in the way of bilateral trade agreements by Common Market regulations that came



Renewed contacts
Willy Brandt, right, the Federal Republic Foreign Minister, spoke for ninety minutes with the Soviet ambassador Semyon Tsarapkin on 10 January.

(Photo: AP)

into force at the end of the year, difficulties of which Moscow has been aware, France is still intent on negotiating a new five-year trade agreement with the Soviet Union in March. This only goes to show what importance Paris attaches to Franco-Soviet trade.

The proposed 100-per-cent increase to 7,000 million francs worth of trade by the end of 1994 is obviously valuable enough for M. De Gaulle to warrant a tussle with the Common Market Commission in Brussels.

At the moment it is less clear what France is to buy from a much less attractive range of Soviet goods in return for its own exports, which can certainly be expanded.

There is talk of supplies of natural gas from the Soviet Union, which France would not doubt find useful as a lever to counter Algerian threats. There is also talk of buying a large number of licences and patents.

Klaus Hoyer
(IndustrieKurier, 11 January 1989)

Tentative attempts at re-opening relations

Diplomatic efforts in this direction are in evidence in Soviet dealings with Washington, Paris and the United Nations. Bonn could hardly be left out after first being made out to be the anti-counter-revolutionary. The first move was the New York meeting between Foreign Ministers Andrei Gromyko and Willy Brandt on 7 October.

The Soviet Foreign Minister subsequently showed interest in continuing the exchange, summoning Helmut Allardt, the country's ambassador in Moscow, to the Kremlin on 11 December and giving him a catalogue of questions for the Federal government.

After reporting to Bonn Herr Allardt, it is understood, conferred with Deputy Foreign Minister Semyonov early this

month. Apart from the obligatory protest against the convening of the Federal Assembly, the electoral college that is to elect the successor to President Lübke, in West Berlin, formalities only were discussed. Even so, the meeting constituted a hint that the Soviet government would like to begin a diplomatic exchange.

Of the possible topics the exchange of declarations renouncing the use of force to solve political problems could be discussed until the cows come home and the meeting of the Federal Assembly in West Berlin is unlikely to be solved in the satisfaction of both parties but agreement might be reached on flights between Frankfurt and Moscow.

The bone of contention is the Soviet stop-over at Schönfeld airport, East Berlin. The Western Allies have been informed. The Chancellor and the Cabinet must reach a decision and the Allies be consulted again. This will all take time.

But all in all, prospects are more rosy, even though the revolution cannot be brought to a halt.

(Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung für Deutschland, 11 January 1989)

Frankfurter Allgemeine

ZEITUNG FÜR DEUTSCHLAND

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FOREIGN AFFAIRS

France brings pressure to bear on Israel

PURITY OF MOTIVES DUBIOUS

At the Quai d'Orsay the ban on arms sales to Israel imposed by General de Gaulle is described as a warning shot. The General made the decision without consulting his Cabinet, exercising supreme power in a manner fulfilling his monarchical concept of the Presidency. Cabinet approval was only a constitutional formality.

The political significance of the ban lies in the explanation given. The Israeli attack on Beirut airport was unacceptable, the French government ruled; unacceptable for Israel's neighbors and unacceptable in the interests of international security.

This time the President's advisors will not have advised him so emphatically against imposing sanctions on Israel as in summer 1967 when an embargo was placed on delivery of MiG-19 fighters. Bombers already ordered and partly paid for and on the supply of other offensive weapons to Israel.

After French helicopters had been used in Israel's commando attack on the civil



airport in Beirut the General felt it only logical to impose a total ban on arms exports to Israel.

The use of French liaison helicopters, hardly an offensive weapon, in Israel's punitive expeditions to Israel and the Nile valley made it only too clear to the General how dubious the distinction between offensive and defensive weapons can be.

With inexorable political logic General de Gaulle came to the conclusion that if France was to pursue any sort of policy in the Middle East Israel must be supplied neither with military equipment nor spares for existing equipment of French origin.

Not long after the Sinai campaign Foreign Minister Couve de Murville, replying to accusations that by imposing the embargo on offensive weapons, which

in the meantime had been extended to Israel's Arab neighbors, his government had abandoned its position of neutrality, commented that France was not neutral but impartial.

The difference has far-reaching consequences, as France's policies since have shown. In common with other great powers France is trying to impose a political solution from without, to alleviate the conflict by means of a dictated security statute, to delimit the frontiers by international agreement and guarantee them by means of an international force.

France's policies are directed at neither neutrality and non-intervention nor diplomatic mediation between the countries concerned but a international intervention, joint action by the Four Powers in the name of the United Nations and with a Security Council mandate along the lines of the resolution of 22 November 1967.

To this extent France is partial. The role of an impartial, peace-promoting power willing to mediate and with nothing else in mind than the security of all countries in the Middle East presupposes total abstinence. The total ban on arms supplies is not intended as a passive move but as an instrument of dynamic security policy.

Even in France, as in 1967, this policy has been criticised from all sides. General de Gaulle will have reckoned with this criticism and will continue to disregard it because of the aim of his diplomatic campaign, to bring pressure to bear on Israel.

His analysis of the conflict is based on the conviction that it is not Israel that is the weaker party faced with a threat to its very existence but the Palestinian Arabs and the other Arab neighbors at the Jewish state. From the Elysée Palace Israel looms on the political horizon as the Middle Eastern power that must be forced to exercise moderation or else taught a lesson in order to make peace with security for all possible.

With this in mind the French government recently reiterated its demand that

Israel withdraw from the occupied Arab territories, no unambiguous reference being made to Jerusalem, the main bone of contention. General de Gaulle's greatest worry is that the attacks and counter-attacks may escalate to a level where the last hopes of negotiations are dashed and the Arab belligerents are stiffened in their determination not to accept peace.

Were this situation to come about, General de Gaulle feels, the great powers would no longer be in a position to control the crisis from without, insofar as they still are in a position to do so.

The General is accordingly moved by allegations that he is encouraging the Arabs to be unyielding and jeopardising the existence of Israel. He does not stop short at playing along with the Soviet Union either, even though the Kremlin is intent on furthering its own power-political interests in the Middle East.

The purity of General de Gaulle's motives is, however, rendered more dubious by the policy he himself pursues towards Arab countries from Iraq to Algeria, none of which will be ill-disposed towards his risky policy of bringing pressure to bear on Israel.

Lothar Ruehl
(DIE WELT, 9 January 1969)

Further ties with Belgrade this month

Jugoslavia and the Federal Republic of Germany expect to reach agreement on the terms of a new cultural and scientific exchange treaty before the end of January. A Yugoslav draft of the proposed agreement is reported already to have been submitted to the Bonn Foreign Office.

The Federal government hopes, when negotiations have reached a successful conclusion, to be able to set up information centres in Zagreb and Belgrade to assist Yugoslav educational facilities in making contact with similar institutions in this country.

Yugoslav state legislation prohibiting the establishment of foreign cultural institutes makes the setting-up of German Institutes impossible. It is gathered, but there has been talk in Belgrade of an exchange of scientists and artists.

(Süddeutsche Zeitung, 8 January 1969)

Spain hands Ifni back to the Moroccan government



It must be admitted that Spain, unlike other countries, has parted company from its remaining colonies since the Second World War in an elegant and painless fashion. In 1956 Spanish Morocco was granted independence following a similar move by France. A few months ago Spanish Guinea followed suit and now Ifni, an enclave owned by Spain since 1860, has been handed over to Morocco. In every case the parting has been on the best of terms.

All that remains of what once was an enormous colonial empire on which the sun never set is Spanish Sahara and a few possessions on the north coast of Morocco: Ceuta, Melilla and a few rocks that are hardly contested by Morocco and formally belong to the mother country.

The Sahara, a worthless stretch of desert, Spain would also be glad to relin-

quish but Morocco and Mauritania still dispute the prize.

In handing over Ifni Spain has not only secured fishing rights on the coast. For Spain friendship with the Arab and African world is far more important, particularly support in the United Nations when the old bone of contention Gibraltar is debated.

In the past Britain has responded to Spanish demands for decolonisation of the Rock by pointing out that for once, Madrid has not parted company from its remaining colonies in Africa either and can hardly use colonialism as an argument.

The hand-over of Ifni has deprived Whitehall of a major argument and this is bound to have some effect when Gibraltar next comes up before the General Assembly. Spain can reckon with strong support from African and Asian countries when it reiterates its demand for the return of Gibraltar.

The UN has given Britain until autumn 1969 to leave Gibraltar. Spain will be in a strong position when the forthcoming negotiations start.

(Süddeutsche Zeitung, 7 January 1969)

POLITICS

FDP challenges political giants

NEW PARTY IMAGE AT EPIPHANY CONFERENCE



Against the background of a hundred-year tradition, the 1969 Epiphany Conference of the Free Democratic Party (FDP) occupies a special, perhaps a distinguished place in the variable history of southwest German liberalism.

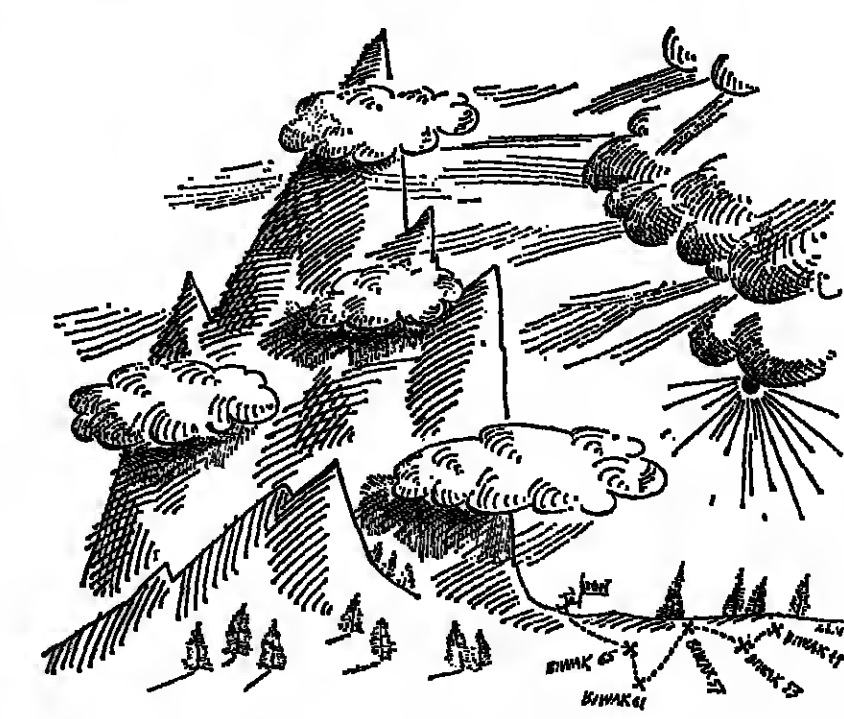
Since the early sixties it has been the aim of senior FDP politicians, who are now carrying the banner of German liberalism, to regenerate the party politically speaking and to create a new party image. Schumacher once said tradition does not mean keeping ashes but maintaining the fire, if they wanted to remove the dross and give the fire new life.

In the opinion of progressive reformers, far-reaching structural changes would be required to achieve this objective. It is now thought that these changes have been effected; after a laborious transformation the "new party" has taken shape, it is claimed.

At the Epiphany Conference Walter Scheel, chairman of the FDP in its new guise, indicated the line of attack which the party, committed to "left-wing liberal positions," will pursue. Leaving aside party conference speeches and discussions it is worth posing a question which has both topical and fundamental significance: What are the aims of the "new FDP" which as a result of a self-imposed transformation process has redefined its political standpoint? This process has and will have a definite effect on party membership and the electorate.

In an attempt to describe the new FDP image, one can certainly assert for a start that by adopting a left-wing position Walter Scheel's Free Democrats challenged the traditional standing of the Social Democratic Party (SPD) in this country's political history, even though the SPD has at times seemed more like a middle-of-the-road party since the 1950s congress conference. It can also be stated that the new FDP's line of attack is clearly directed against the Christian Democratic and Christian Social Unions (CDU/CSU).

This is certainly all accurate and important, but it is not even half the truth of the matter. The purpose of the FDP's



Scaling the stormy heights

(Cartoon: Marte Maack/Süddeutsche Zeitung)

political reorientation and reformation—it was announced at the Epiphany Conference that the later process has been completed—is to present the party as a political opposition party offering alternative policies, just as capable as the other governing parties in the Federal Republic, and to force these parties to undertake a review of their own political standpoint and not to shy away from changes.

People may say that this is like David challenging Goliath or Benjamin challenging his elder brothers. But one thing is certain: the days of Reinhold Meier, who evangelized the FDP as being "small but distinguished," are gone.

Today the FDP wants to bring about a reorganizing of the political parties in the Federal Republic. It wants to transform them into communities of action, committed members who are prepared to make sacrifices. And the FDP is deliberately presenting itself as a democratic alternative to the Grand Coalition.

Having completed its reconstruction process, the FDP wants to appeal to the

mobile social groups in this country. It wants to sharpen party political arguments and to achieve a clear juxtaposition of political convictions so as to force both opponents and voters to reach definite decisions.

First of all the FDP wants to break down the prejudices against the party, which are prevalent amongst certain social groups. Then it wants to initiate a campaign to gain the support of at least some of the approximately twelve million voters who are not committed to a particular party and could, therefore, be won over.

Admittedly, Walter Scheel is pursuing higher aims. He no longer wants to make do with a modest proportion of power, he wants to gain real power. Deliberately and unmistakably, he has announced the FDP's desire to play a leading role.

The FDP's political flights of fancy may be dismissed with a gesture, but this would certainly not be politically shrewd. Of course, it is an open question whether the FDP will be able to stick to the "option of the long march," and many of the left-wing liberals' ideas may seem strange or misguided, but some of their aims will never be realized.

However, the structural transformation of political parties, which has been going on for quite some time, should not be overlooked, nor should the increase in the number of political parties in the Federal Republic be ignored. Right-wing elements have been joining forces and left-wingers have been eagerly making their presence felt, and parallel to this development, within the realm of the traditional political parties, large numbers of voters are now willing to change their allegiance. This, together with the influence of new generations of voters, could possibly lead to a radical change in the spectrum of political parties which has characterized the scene during the past decade.

Experience indicates that there are always voters who will change their political party, and the willingness to switch allegiances is that much greater if links with the social environment are weak. Thus, the electorate's tendency to fluctuate is bound to increase if new parties are established and existing parties project a new image. This situation seems to have arisen at the present time.

If having carried out its re-structuring process, the FDP presents itself as a "new

party" and tries to enlist the support of mobile groups, which must be regarded as floating voters, for its political aims, then the FDP's new position will force the Grand Coalition partners—the CDU/CSU and the SPD—to make their attitudes clear. This is especially true since the liberals' definition of their position is part of the party's political structural transformation in the Federal Republic.

This process could be interrupted again and be continued in a different manner. But the reorganisation is underway, and Franz Josef Strauss did not display conservative convictions in vain when the CSU adopted a new political programme in Munich.

Political megalomania

Anyone who regards Scheel's speech against this background, may accuse the Free Democrats of political megalomania, but the party is not likely to be particularly impressed by such reproaches. No one should underestimate the determination of a committed political community, which is prepared to make sacrifices and to embark upon a long march—where possible, irrespective of religious sectarians.

The FDP knows its aim; it does not know whether it will achieve this aim, but it will pursue it unflinchingly as if political convictions could remove the mountain of difficulties, which the party will have to face. The CDU/CSU and the SPD should, therefore, take this challenge seriously.

Wilhelm Greiner
(RHEIN-NECKAR-ZEITUNG, 7 January 1969)

FDP holds back views on presidential election



In 5 March the Federal Assembly will meet in hall F of the West Berlin exhibition ground near the television tower. The Free Democratic Party (FDP) will only decide the day before the election of the new Federal president which of the two candidates, Gerhard Schröder and Gustav Heinemann it will vote for.

In Stuttgart the FDP presidium decided to call a joint meeting of the FDP delegates to the Federal Assembly and of the FDP Federal executive at three o'clock on the afternoon of 4 March 1969. After a thorough discussion of both candidates, a test vote on the views of FDP Federal Assembly delegates will be taken, under the direction of party chairman Walter Scheel.

The postponement of the FDP decision until the last moment indicates the difficulties which confront the party as regards reaching a unanimous decision. As has been repeatedly stated during recent months, Scheel and other senior FDP members have again said that the FDP will give its 84 votes in the Federal Assembly to the candidate who receives majority support in the test vote.

At the moment, informed observers think it is very likely that the majority of the FDP Bundestag party and presumably of the state delegations will vote for Heinemann. But it is also thought that a number of FDP members will definitely not vote for Heinemann in the Federal Assembly's secret ballot, even if he gains majority support in the test vote. On the other hand, another section of the party would certainly not vote for Schröder even if he won the preliminary vote, though this is at only rare doubt in the present.

(Frankfurter Neue Presse, 8 January 1969)

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Ernst Benda works on plans for cabinet shrinkage

At present there are twenty ministers in the Federal Cabinet. The next Cabinet will not have more but less members, in fact only ten or twelve. This is part of the plan which Minister of the Interior Ernst Benda has been working out in recent months, at the request of Chancellor Kiesinger, and which is gradually taking shape.

Early this year Benda is to submit his proposals to the Cabinet so that they can be discussed thoroughly and passed before the elections. He is working on the assumption that a reduction in the size of the Cabinet only be realised through coalition negotiations when forming a new government. Once the government has been appointed, it would hardly be possible to reduce its size because no minister would want to give up his department.

It is said that Benda intends to put two suggestions before the Cabinet. Both are based on the idea that Federal ministers and the Cabinet should be largely relieved of administrative problems so that there



is more time for discussion of political decisions.

According to the first alternative, ten to twelve large ministries should be formed by merging several smaller departments. Instead of the current parliamentary state secretaries, Federal ministers as heads of departments should have ministers of state under their authority to carry out specific tasks.

The second proposal is that all ministries, which are primarily responsible for administration, should be transformed into senior Federal authorities and placed under the remaining ministries. This would be possible, for example, with the departments responsible for posts, health and the whole complex of youth and family affairs.

(Hamburger Abendblatt, 7 January 1969)

Josef Molter
DIE WELT 12. Dezember 1997

EDUCATION

Vice-chancellors oppose Arts, Science and Research Council

The Federal Republic students' union has accused the Arts, Science and Research Council of treading on the academic world because of its recommendations on reorganising university structure and administration. Doubtless this is an exaggeration for propaganda purposes.

But no one can doubt that if these recommendations were implemented, they would establish "supervised universities." Because they are aware of this danger, the members of the Federal Republic Vice-chancellors' Conference have been quick to publicise their opposing views.

The first section of their recommendations on university reform, which has already been published and deals with central administrative bodies, is obviously influenced by the desire to defend university autonomy and to combat all attempts to allow the state more influence on university affairs via state or back entrances.

The Vice-chancellors' Conference thinks that the most dangerous intrusion of state bureaucracy and political bodies would be the institution of a university president, who would have far-reaching powers and would be appointed by the state. For their part, they suggest three alternatives: a collegiate chancellor's office, a collegiate presidium or a senior vice-chancellor.

The collegiate chancellor's office, called a directorate, would consist of three members whose appointments would be subsidiary to other posts. The chancellor could belong to this body either as an advisor or a voting member.

The collegiate presidium would be made up of a president—this would be a full-time post—who need not be a university leader and at least two vice-presidents, who would be on the teaching staff.

The full-time vice-chancellor would be appointed for at least four years and would have only one deputy. The directorate would be elected by the university council, the university administrative body. The full-time vice-chancellor would be elected by the council and confirmed in office by the state government. The president would be nominated by council and appointed by the state government.

One of the Arts, Science and Research Council's recommendations suggests a governing body which would be able to control the university president and



would have far-reaching powers to dispose of the lump sum subsidies to universities. The vice-chancellors, in agreement with students, regard this idea as a back door by means of which hostile elements could penetrate the universities and make nonsense of the principle of autonomy.

The vice-chancellors are not interested in a mixed body of this kind which would enable the state executive, the legislature and certain community groups to participate directly in decisions affecting individual universities. The advisory committee, which they suggest as an alternative to promote contacts with the community, could scarcely become more than a well-meaning club for local dignitaries.

In the opinion of vice-chancellors, the senate should remain the central university executive body. The senate decides on all fundamentally important questions, passes all university regulations, advises on budgetary matters and, if necessary, alters budget allocations with a two-thirds majority, and approves all nominations for appointments.

The suggestion regarding the composition of the senate tries to take into account two principles at the same time. The Arts, Science and Research Council gives up the idea of faculty representation on the senate to ensure the integration of the departmental system throughout the university. But the vice-chancellors consider that faculty representation is essential for the sake of this same integration.

Universities cannot be adapted to twentieth century needs simply by introducing reforms. For instance, the traditional faculty system is essentially the duties of a vice-chancellor cannot be combined with the desire to be a university teacher at the same time; university organisation, which is based on the professorial chair and whose pure form is the one-man institute, directly contradicts the fact that nowadays research almost invariably requires cooperation between various disciplines; and it is doubtful whether the Abitur (school-leaving examination) should remain the sole qualification for university entrance.

Because of all these factors, expansion of the university system can no longer be achieved merely through reforms; large-scale reorganisation is necessary. This is not only the opinion of rebellious students but also of the Arts, Science and Research Council—the body responsible for university policy, which still possesses most authority in this field in the Federal Republic and which recently submitted its latest recommendations on university reform.

Although the Arts, Science and Research Council has no executive powers, its recommendations are bound to arouse widespread interest. Their early recommendations on the extension of academic institutions and only attracted attention but achieved a measure of success, which has not yet been fully clarified. All the state parliaments began to drastically increase the number of university teachers.

This success—and not simply the constantly increasing number of students—made the classical university organisation, based on personal cooperation between teachers and self-administrative bodies, unworkable. In 1960 the Arts, Science and Research Council relied on the state and

But in order that university staff, junior lecturers and students have the right to representation, the senate would include two delegates elected by teachers, and three or four representatives elected by junior lecturers and the same number of student representatives.

Since the "new faculties" established by merging several existing departments are to be smaller than the present faculties, the senate would automatically be larger than at the moment. A senate consisting of 25 members, as envisaged by the Vice-chancellors' Conference, would only be workable—if at all—if practical tasks were largely dealt with by the permanent specialised commissions, which it is suggested should be set up for all areas of responsibility.

The university council, which would be an administrative body, elected and convened by the executive, presents an even trickier problem. The council would consist of the voting members of the senate and the specialised commissions.

But since the recommendations say nothing about the organisation of these specialised areas and it is, therefore, an open question who would belong to these commissions, it is difficult to estimate how large the university councils would be. They could have five or even eight hundred members, and it is surely doubtful whether such monstrous gatherings could function efficiently.

The commission appointed by the Vice-chancellors' Conference in work out suggestions for the basic organisation of universities, that is for the organisation of departments, the future units for teaching and research, has not yet completed its investigation. It can be assumed that this is not because of lack of industry but

University reform and the times

the Abitur is called in question, but the Arts, Science and Research Council only really doubts the efficacy of this system where there is already a shortage of university places. Comel says that new methods of selection should be developed.

There is a real danger that by concentrating on developing special selection procedures, attention will be taken to increase the number of places to meet demand. This danger seems considerable in view of the numerous changes which already have to be operated at many universities.

All considerations connected with reorganising the teaching structure and some of the matters on which the Arts, Science and Research Council remains silent or does not provide sufficient information. It is not enough to suggest that the honorary vice-chancellor should be replaced by a full-time president or that heads of departments should not have absolute power over their particular professorial chair.

The slogan "democratisation of universities" means more than the introduction of tripartite parity—namely the abolition of the hierarchical structure, abolition of the increasing personal privileges granted to senior members of the university, participation by all members of the institution in decision-making, and the establishment of control mechanisms within the university.

Thus in the coming weeks the Arts, Science and Research Council will be subject to much justified criticism. It is a known fact that the council takes decisions calmly. But it would be a good thing if Council did not insist on ambiguous or inadequately thought out suggestions simply because it has sufficient prestige to get away with it.

The first category includes proposals regarding university entrance. Admittedly unconditional acceptance on the basis of

the university themselves in find ways of altering the administrative system. But eight years later it has had to put forward its own proposals for structural and administrative changes at universities.

These points and many details of the Arts, Science and Research Council's recommendations reiterate what has been demanded on all sides for quite some time, and what has been discussed in some quarters when considering new university legislation. Many suggestions are laudable; many repeat what reasonable reformers already regard as the best solution, despite the present, particularly depressing circumstances at universities.

Nonetheless, these recommendations are bound to arouse criticism: because some of the points which are raised, and because of some points which are ignored.

The first category includes proposals regarding university entrance. Admittedly unconditional acceptance on the basis of

because of the difficulty of reaching agreement.

The organisation of departments raises the question of participation and cooperation on the part of junior lecturers and students. Do the vice-chancellors really think that university autonomy should only be defended if cooperation between the various groups who do the work is successfully achieved?

Sensible proposals for long-term, flexible budgets and new bodies which, like the suggested university budget committee, would improve cooperation with government authorities, will not save university autonomy if the universities themselves do not succeed in solving the conflicts between their various constituent groups.

(JULIUSCHIES ALLGEMEINES SONNTAGSBLATT, 22 December 1968)

Student body exceeds 250,000 mark

In the summer semester of 1968 the number of German students in the 52 universities in the Federal Republic (including the 17 philosophical-theological and ecclesiastical universities) topped the 257,000 mark, that is 3.1 per cent more than in the summer semester of 1967.

According to figures released by the Federal Statistics Bureau the number of foreign students dropped slightly compared with previous semesters to 21,600. Almost a quarter (24.2 per cent) of the German students at further education colleges are women, and 20.1 per cent of university students are women.

As in 1967, the most popular subjects amongst German students during 1968 were arts subjects, but among those having to be teachers at primary, secondary and further education schools, 27.2 per cent of students opted for arts subjects.

14.7 per cent studied economics, 16.4 per cent scientific subjects, 11.4 per cent engineering, 11.1 per cent medicine and 10.5 per cent law.

(DIE WELT, 19 December 1968)

SCIENCE

Doctors and unorthodox treatment

CONTRIBUTION TO THERAPY

When prescribing treatment only one in ten of doctors practising in large towns restrict themselves to orthodox and scientifically proven methods. At least occasionally, three quarters of the doctors attached to health insurance schemes also employ "unconventional medical methods."

This fact was revealed by a survey initiated by the Stuttgart medical association and conducted in the city. Professor Hans Ritter, consultant at the polytechnic of the Robert Bosch Hospital in Stuttgart, was responsible for this interesting survey. Detailed information provided by 570 doctors was evaluated, and significantly 81 of these doctors wished to remain anonymous.

The survey showed that of the various unorthodox methods, practising doctors were particularly keen on homeopathy in its various forms. More than a third of the doctors questioned said they occasionally used homeopathic methods. Professor Ritter thinks that this is not surprising in a state where this form of treatment has long been firmly accepted. It could be interesting, therefore, if a similar survey were carried out in one



other Federal state, preferably in a rural area, comments the Stuttgart doctor.

Phytotherapy, the use of herbal cures, is almost as popular. However, in this instance it is often difficult to differentiate between this type of treatment and orthodox medicine. For example, digitalis (foxglove leaves used as a drug, which is traditionally used by orthodox doctors, is a herbal substance.

After homeopathy, acupunct and segmental therapy are most frequently employed. These methods of treatment only differ very slightly from orthodox medicine. They are dependent on the important realisation (and a fact which is also recognised by classical medicine) that close mutual reactions take place between the nerve-fibres of the individual segments of the spinal chord and the corresponding organs and areas of skin; these

reactions can be influenced through injections or other treatment of the "zones" affected by illness.

Acupuncture, a method taken over from ancient Chinese medicine, is a special form of segmental therapy. However, only relatively few doctors use this method, whereas it seems that chiropractic which unfortunately was not mentioned in the questionnaire is fairly widespread.

Many doctors only use these unorthodox measures occasionally or as additional therapy. The number of doctors who mainly or even exclusively prescribe unorthodox treatment is relatively small. But Professor Ritter says it would be illusory to think that scientific medicine is gradually replacing the cures which are not strictly scientific.

At best, this only applies to a very small group of illnesses when it would be a professional error, so to speak, not to employ the methods recommended by orthodox medicine. But only about four per cent of the complaints with which the practising doctor has to deal belong to this category.

The recommended treatment for 18 per cent of common illnesses is only "relatively prescriptive," that is, in its present form treatment is not absolutely binding although it is usually employed. And Professor Ritter goes on to say that another 21 per cent of cases concern "quite routine manipulations which do not affect the problem under review."

Thus, there is no generally binding and accepted therapy for 57 per cent of the complaints with which the practising doctor comes into contact. But in his report recently published in the *Deutscher Ärztezeitung* Professor Ritter stresses that it is just these illnesses which concern the practising doctor or specialist.

As orthodox medicine is often unable to suggest clear guidelines for treatment of these cases, it is hardly surprising that a doctor may resort to unrecognised

methods more frequently than he cares to admit. What should a doctor do in view of this situation? Should he refuse to try cures which are not recognised by orthodox medicine, as a matter of principle?

Professor Ritter has his doubts. He thinks that this kind of attitude could persuade more patients, who have not responded to orthodox treatment at first, to turn to quacks who might overlook a really serious danger or disease.

He suggests that "critical consideration of methods of treatment outside the strictly scientific field could contribute to a reassessment of general practice." In any event, however, a similar statistical investigation should first be carried out on a broader basis.

(DIE WELT, 22 December 1968)

Geographers from Hanover to visit Africa

Professor Horst Mensching, director of the geographical institute at Hanover's Technical University, and three of his colleagues will be conducting scientific research in Africa between 4 January and 10 April 1969. The expedition will cost about 75,000 Marks and is largely being financed by the Federal Research Association.

During this period the group will travel in two landrovers from Addis Ababa (Ethiopia) via Bobo-Dioulassa (Upper Volta), Niamey (Niger), Kano (Nigeria), Agadez (Niger), Tamanrasset and El Golea (Algeria) to Algiers.

The distance covered will be some 8,400 miles of which about 1,250 miles will take the researchers along desert tracks. The main purpose of the expedition is to carry out basic research into the water supply on the southern edge of the Sahara and to investigate the climatic development of the desert, morphological processes, the development of land-fauna and the exploitation of bird refuges (refuges) in the Sahara. Two regions for special study will be the transitional area between Savanna and desert in Upper Volta and the Air and Hoggar mountains.

(Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung, 20 December 1968)

New methods for Bible translation

At the instigation of the Institut d'Études de la Bible, the Volkswagen Foundation has provided 300,000 Marks for work on a large edition of the New Testament.

The chairman of the foundation, Bishop D. Hermann Kasper (Rome), had submitted a motion calling for the promotion of biblical research into the New Testament.

The last edition of the Greek New Testament, which can be said to have taken into consideration and actually incorporated all existing manuscripts, appeared a hundred years ago. Since then numerous additional manuscripts have been discovered; in the past decade alone some thousand manuscripts have been unearthed by the Münster Institute for New Testament textual research, directed by Professor D. Kurt Aland.

These discoveries have put the text of the New Testament in a completely new light. Above all the recent, often sensational, discoveries of papyrus manuscripts have put forward the idea that the New Testament was written by two centuries. Thus, attention has been focussed on the possibility of which the nineteenth century would never have dreamed.

The whole situation has changed since the Münster textual research institute, which was founded in 1976, succeeded in acquiring photographs or microfilms of nearly 90 per cent of all New Testament manuscripts.

Textual research

The leading European institutes engaged in textual research into the New Testament as well as the Münster institute, these include the Vatican Library, the Papal Institute in Beirut, the Ecole Biblique in Jerusalem, the Pontifical Institute of Biblical Studies and the Oriental Institute at Löwen University—these institutes and various other bodies are co-operating as a scholarly community in order to seriously tackle this great task on an international and inter-confessional basis, using the most modern methods available.

The data-processing centre at Tübingen University has worked out a system

which means that a computer will be able to assist in this work. The study will take many years, but the initial period at least financial requirements will be met by the Volkswagen Foundation.

When this great task has been completed, it will not only provide the basis for all academic study of the New Testament but also for all translations of the New Testament into modern languages.

(Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung, 18 December 1968)

Johannes Georgi — explorer of Greenland

The number of field researchers who have been able to make a valid contribution to exploring the world is dwindling fast. Johannes Georgi is one of the few. With modest external means, he has been able to make lasting contributions to research.

In 1926/27 he discovered the strong gales in the north-west corner of Ireland, which are now called jet streams. Despite hazardous conditions, he successfully investigated the International Polar Year in 1957/58 in which 40 nations participated. He designed several epoch-making instruments and he became internationally known as the director of the polar station during Alfred Wegener's Greenland expedition in 1930/31.

Georgi, who was born on 14 December 1898, was one of the first students to attend lectures by the young Alfred Wegener in Marburg. At that time Wegener had already established his reputation as the most successful Greenland researcher in Germany.

As it dictated by fate, the paths of these two men crossed again when Wegener became Georgi's superior at the Hamburg marine observatory in 1919. But it was Georgi who, after an important expedition to Iceland, once again turned Wegener's attention to the largest

island in the world. Georgi revealed his plans for travelling to Greenland.

Initially, the two of them organised the 1930/31 Greenland expedition, the most ambitious project ever undertaken on the island by German researchers. Georgi certainly had the most difficult task to fulfil; he was in charge of the polar station on the ice cap at a height of 3,000 metres above sea level.

Here, under the trickiest conditions, Georgi carried out balloon experiments which revolutionised the knowledge of Greenland's meteorology. Sorge dug a 16-metre shaft and acquired measurements which were considered sensational at the time and were confirmed in 1948/51.

The research projects had been completed when the polar station was evacuated but the success of the mission was marred by Wegener's death. Nothing was done during the Third Reich to record the geodetic signals in the polar regions.

But during the major French expedition between 1948 and 1951, Paul-Emile Victor was persuaded by Georgi not to establish another polar station but to link up with the old German station. Thus it was possible to compare measurements recorded twenty years apart.

In the summer of 1955 a small group of American researchers were able to



Johannes Georgi (Photo: Lau)

confirm Victor's findings, and in the same year a commission responsible for planning a third International Geophysical Year took up Georgi's suggestion that the historic polar station should be maintained as a permanent, international base.

Johannes Georgi's book *Im Eis vergraben* will remain one of the most interesting reports on a polar expedition.

(Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung, 18 December 1968)

Ulm design college closes

On 11 December teaching and studying at the Ulm College of Design ceased. This was decided at a recent meeting of the executive of the Scholl Foundation. The executive thus bowed to the decision reached by the Baden-Württemberg government which had blocked the transitional budget originally allocated to the College of Design.

Students who were due to take their final examinations shortly are to be allowed to complete their courses. Other students are to be guaranteed places at the re-founded college. A commission of experts will decide on the site and accommodation of the new college. By the autumn of 1969 the commission is to report to the government on re-founding the college as a state institution. The Scholl Foundation, which has supported the college up to now, will only be disbanded after the state has taken over responsibility for the college.

(Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung, 18 December 1968)

Johannes Georgi

TRANSPORT

Too many vehicles for too few miles of highways

Twenty-five million motor vehicles rolled off the assembly lines in Europe, America and Japan last year. In 1967 there were already 150 million cars on the world's roads and the annual rate of increase is about ten per cent.

Eleven million private cars, one million commercial vehicles and 1.2 million tractors motored around the Federal Republic of Germany in 1967, joined in the summer months by the annual influx of foreign tourists heading south.

Their only contribution to road-building and maintenance of the autobahns on which they sped towards warmer climes was to fill up with petrol a couple of times. Tax on a litre of petrol amounts to roughly 42 pfennigs, at least 48 per cent of which goes towards road-building.

This flux of automobiles will assume even worse proportions, according to a forecast made by Deutsche Shell. By 1975, it was estimated, there will be twenty million cars on the roads of this country. 1975 is only seven years hence. They will be far more as far as the growth of the motor trade is concerned and lean years in respect of the motorists' freedom of movement.

The Federal Republic's road network has reached the respectable level of more than 250,000 miles. This is equal to ten times round the globe or the distance from the Earth to the Moon. This total consists of:

- 2,350 miles of autobahn
- 29,000 miles of Federal highways
- 41,500 miles of state roads
- 36,500 miles of roads for which the administrative districts (Kreise) are responsible
- 85,000 miles of local authority roads in built-up areas
- 71,000 miles of local authority roads outside built-up areas.

Yet these figures do not by any means prove that this country's road network is anywhere near completion. In neighbouring France, for instance, there are 450,000 miles of road, used by only ten million private cars and a total of only twelve million motor vehicles of all kinds.

French motorists have nearly twice as many miles of road at their disposal and since they also drive only 6,000 miles a year on average (as against 10,000 here) the volume of traffic on a mile of road is approximately four times greater in this country than in France.

Even so, people in this country can breakfast leisurely, have a working lunch with a business contact 300 miles away and dine with a friend 500 miles away. They do not need to use public transport for this. French motorists cannot equal this feat, for they do not have the benefit of this country's 2,250 miles of car-free motorway, to which a further 500 are to be added in the course of the present four-year road-building programme, due to end in 1971, not to mention the 1,040 miles of autobahn that are still at the planning stage.

When these plans have left the drawing board and taken shape on the ground this country will have at its disposal a network of more than 4700 miles of autobahns, the super-highways that used to be called the roads the Führer built (despite the fact that they were planned and commenced during the Weimar Republic).

Autobahns, which can only be compared with America's inter-state highways and Italy's autostrade, prove convincingly that the efficacy of a country's road network depends less on quantity than on quality.

With the exception of the United States no country has anywhere near as many miles of autobahn as the Federal Republic of Germany. Italy has 1,700, France 625,

Britain 430, the Netherlands 400, Austria 220, Belgium 190 and Sweden 130 miles of motorway.

In Europe as a whole there are already 5,800 miles of autobahn, but by 1980 there are to be 12,500, nearly two fifths of which will be in this country.

On 10 September 1950 transport specialists from all over Europe agreed to work on a network of European roads. The Federal Republic became a party to this agreement, which has since been increased in scope, on 11 November 1957.

There are roughly 30,000 miles of European roads, marked by green road signs with the letter "E" in white and a number from 1 to 26. Approximately a third of the total pass through three Common Market countries, Italy, France and the Federal Republic.

Within the framework of the present four-year road-building programme this country's autobahn bottlenecks hope by 1970 to bridge major gaps in the autobahn network, caused mainly by the division of Germany and principally affecting north-south traffic from Hamburg, Bremen and Hanover to Munich and Basel.

Transport experts of the Weimar and Hitler periods based their planning on Berlin, the Reich capital. An autobahn ring round Berlin was planned and autobahns from all over the Reich were to link up with it.

This idea is no longer feasible. At Helmsdorf, Hild and near Hamburg access to the Berlin Ring is blocked. To drive from Hamburg to Munich only a few years ago motorists had first to make their way to the other side of Hanover, by trunk road. Near Göttingen they reached the Kassel-Frankfurt autobahn.

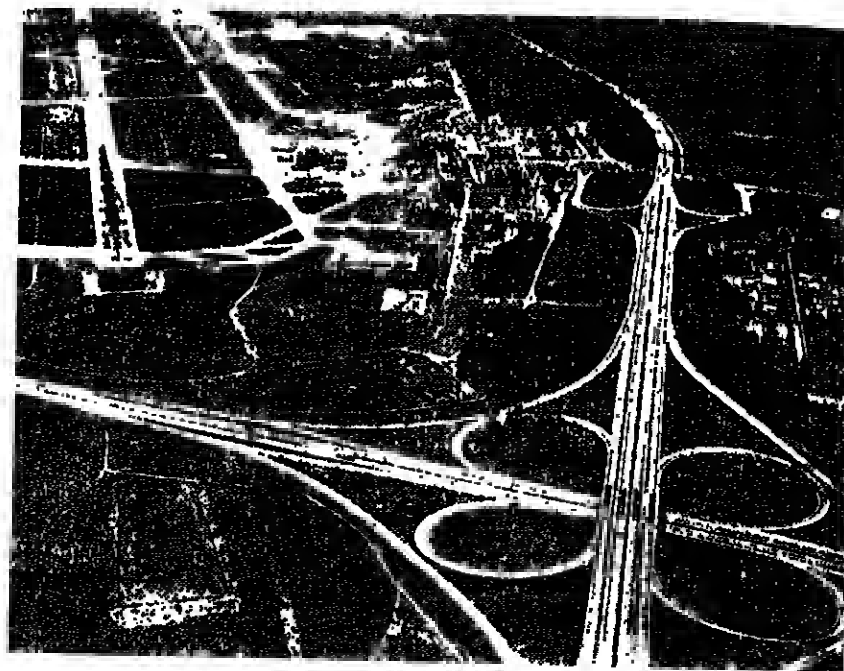
They then had to make the detour via Karlsruhe and Stuttgart to reach Munich by autobahn. The time wasted was ridiculous but, of course, it would have taken even longer on trunk roads.

Southward-bound motoring was first made easier by the building of the Hamburg-Hannover-Kassel autobahn. The Frankfurt-Würzburg-Nuremberg autobahn cut the distance between Hamburg and



Such heavy traffic is a frequent occurrence on autobahns in this country.

(Photo: Conl-Press)



Frankfurt Kreuz, close to Frankfurt's International Airport, is one of the busiest autobahn clover leaves in Europe, linking north-south highways with highways through the industrial Ruhr.

(Photo: dpa-Freiburg Press, Min. L. Wirt. u. Verk. Nr. 3276/67)

Munich by sixty miles or so and the section between Bad Homburg and Würzburg, completed this summer, cut the distance by another sixty miles.

As last driving is now possible over almost the entire distance between the two cities the driver of a family saloon can drive from Hamburg to Munich in seven hours with no difficulty at all. Faster cars can make it in five and a half hours.

Other sections of the Federal Republic's autobahn network are also under construction or due to be commenced by 1970. They include the autobahns from Frankfurt to Heilbronn, Stuttgart to Lake Constance, Nuremberg to Heilbronn, Munich to Lake Constance, Bremen to Cuxhaven, Hamburg to Flensburg, Kehlburg to Luxembourg, Neumünster to Kiel and part of the Hamburg-Berlin autobahn, which was planned before the war.

In all the road-building programme for the period 1967 to 1970 provides for the construction of 825 miles of new autobahn, 1,340 miles of two-lane Federal highway, 880 four-lane Federal highway and 1,120 miles of road extensions. The entire programme is financed by the Federal government and will cost in the region of eighteen million Marks.

The network of Federal highways is no longer the main problem transport planners in this country face. Connections and built-up areas surrounding major cities are the real difficulty. As long ago as 1964 a commission of specialists estimated that by 1975 roughly 100,000 million Marks will be needed to keep local authority roads in trim, a figure that will rise to 250,000 million Marks by the year 2000.

The entire taxation system would need to be revised to raise sums of this kind and more recent estimates make even worse reading. Unless road traffic is to grind to a halt, it has since been forecast, the Federal government, Federal states and local authorities will need to invest roughly 175,000 million Marks in road-building by 1975, and approximately 380,000 million Marks by 1990.

In comparison with figures of this kind the amount of money already spent, although not inconsiderable, seems modest indeed. Since 1950 the Federal government, Federal states and local authorities have invested more than 100,000 million Marks in road-building, roughly a quarter of which has been provided by the Federal government.

Road-building expenditure accounts for 2.2 per cent of the national income, which is none too bad. France spends only 1.5 per cent on road-building and maintenance; Britain only one per cent; Switzerland and Norway head the list at the moment with three per cent. Sweden too does well to invest 2.5 per cent of national income roads.

DEUTSCHES ALLGEMEINES SONNENFACHTAT 5 January 1969

TECHNOLOGY

Technical research achievements poured down the drain

BONN HAS THE LAST WORD

STUTTGARTER ZEITUNG

This country has still not mastered the art of combining commercial success in next to no time from the new branches of technology developed at great expense with the aid of the taxpayers' money. Still less has Bonn learnt its lesson. Research projects financed from defence estimates are suddenly stripped of funds just as the first results start to appear, simply because the purely military interest has flagged or a new concept of defence policy has completely upset technical planning.

Thousands of millions of Marks have been poured down the drain in this way, also enough concealed from the general public on the pretext of secrecy being essential for reasons of military security. No one in Bonn complains.

Real complications do not arise until a firm engaged in research work on the project in question starts to propose making civilian use of the results or completing the work with commercial expenditure in mind. In this instance either nothing happens or months and years pass before decisions are made as to which government department is responsible, whether the project can be taken off the classified list and how the remainder of the work is to be financed.

However is this state of affairs better exemplified than in a new sphere of aviation.

In the month of a few years, overtaken all conceivable competitors in East and West: the technology of vertical take-off aircraft.

To the order of the Ministry of Defence this country's aircraft industry designed, built and test-flew the world's first super-sonic vertical take-off jet, the VJ 101, which is still undergoing tests at Manching, near Ingolstadt. The project has cost more than 1,000 million Marks.

The Defence Ministry also commissioned from Dornier of Oberpfaffenhofen, Munich, the world's first vertical take-off jet transport plane in the twenty-ton class. Here too the design, construction and test flying work have cost more than 250,000 Marks.

At VFW in Bremen, the company formed when Focke-Wulf, Heinkel and Weser

Flugzeugbau merged, work on the prototype of the VAK 101, a vertical take-off plane with a high subsonic cruising speed, is nearing completion. The Ministry of Defence has invested nearly 500,000 Marks in this project too.

Finally, the Defence Ministry has spent an unspecified but considerable amount on design work for a swivel-wing turbo-prop vertical take-off transport plane, the VC 400.

At a conservative estimate this country has so far invested roughly 2,500 million Marks in the development of vertical take-off aircraft, and the special propulsion units and avionics required. The aircraft industry has proved that with this amount of money at its disposal it is capable of doing work that has both gained it international recognition and made it the envy of its competitors.

Defence Ministry ceases to show interest

stage and the VC 400 will probably never leave the ground. Officials concerned badly and with a clear conscience assure all and sundry that vertical take-off experience gained from work on the VJ 101 will unquestionably be of use in work on the new jet fighter, the NKF, that is to supersede the F 104 G. Still, in about ten years or so.

What is not mentioned is that the NKF's predecessor on the drawing-board, the AVS, which was to have been designed not built by a consortium of Federal Republic and American firms, was cancelled by the US government for economy reasons at the very moment a limited or so American engineers left for home with details of work on the super-sonic vertical take-off VJ 101. This information was probably not all they took with them.

Almost as soon as they arrived back in the United States money was again forthcoming, with the result that America is about to build a vertical take-off aircraft that is likely to bear striking similarities with the defunct AVS.

Were the NKF also to run into deep water—and it has already had more than its share of political bickering—this country might well end up, as Lillwalte says, nearly tear, buying its new jet fighter in the United States. Bonn would then have paid for the same aircraft three times over.

For at least two years Dornier have had definite ideas as to how to strip the

Do 31 vertical take-off transport plane for promising civilian uses. In the long term, short and vertical take-off aircraft hold the key to the future of civil aviation too, as Lufthansa board member Professor Gerhard Hölje recently stressed in an interview about the European Airbus.

Yet the financing of this civilian follow-up from a project that was in the final instance purely military in scope is far from assured. Either the Scientific Research or the Economic Affairs Ministry would have to help foot the bill. What is at stake is the salvation of what can be saved after the otherwise wasted investment of enormous sums of government money by means of purposeful and prompt commercial exploitation.

Americans appear on the scene

The Americans have, incidentally, already put in an appearance at Dornier's. Specialists sent over by America's National Aeronautics and Space Administration have test-flown the Do 31 to determine to what extent the present design could be put to civilian use—at city airports, for instance.

It remains to be seen whether or not the Do 31 too will prove a bad business for this country, but the Americans can hardly be blamed. It always takes two to strike a bargain, they say, and one of the two is bound to be the stooge.

Taken as a whole, the state of knowledge this country has gained about vertical take-off aircraft is undoubtedly enough to provide the basis of an entire range of civilian applications. Without a shadow of doubt a super-sonic vertical take-off aircraft will arrive on the scene at some stage or other. The aircraft industry in this country is ideally suited to carry out research and development work.

Also without any doubt there will in 1978 be a demand for a short- and medium-haul vertical take-off aircraft seating 100 to 120 and cruising at roughly 500 miles an hour. The only question arises: will it be designed and built in Europe or will America, although behind-hand, technologically, take on the challenge and end up selling Europe what Europe has already designed?

The US government has already awarded its first contracts for vertical take-off aircraft in Boeing, civilian aircraft, let it be noted. It remains to be seen what will happen. Will this country have wasted thousands of millions of Marks of the taxpayers' money or will commercial success be achieved (and the aircraft industry in this country could certainly do with it)?

In the final analysis all depends on Bonn. This country is going to have to do business anyway. Will it strike a bargain or lie at the receiving end?

(STUTTGARTER ZEITUNG, 3 December 1968)



A LUCKY CATCH...

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GT

Salt mine for oil storage tank

North-west of Bremerhaven an old salt mine is being pumped clear of salt to make an underground storage tank at the northern end of the oil pipeline to the Ruhr. The cavern that will be created is the largest of its kind in the world.

Over a period of twelve months water is to be pumped into the mine at pressure through nine boreholes 4,000 to 5,500 feet deep and pumped out again once it has swilled the workings well and truly out.

Crude oil is to be pumped into the 235-million-cubic-yards of galleries at the end of this year. The underground storage facilities will have cost about 45 million Marks. Oil bunkers of equal capacity would have cost more than three times as much to build.

(Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung für Deutschland, 24 December 1968)

A battery for a battery

Car batteries are exposed to extreme strains and stress. One moment they have to pump current into the starter motor, elegant successor to the starter handle of old; the next the dynamo pumps reserves of energy into its cells. The battery has to cope with hot summers and bitterly cold winters and, all in all, it is hardly surprising that with the best care in the world its life-span is still limited.

Elderly batteries have a tendency to give up the ghost in mid-winter. Manufacturers have misgivings about their own batteries will be pleased to learn that Bosch have now introduced a long-storage battery set to bridge the gap when the inevitable happens. The battery is fully laden and is topped up from the accompanying container immediately before use.

(Boschgesellschaft, 21 December 1968)

101E WELT, 21 December 196